KNN Find k examples $\{\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, t^{(i)}\}$ closest to the test instance \mathbf{x} and then output majority $\arg \max_{t^z} \sum_{r=1}^k \delta(t^{(z)}, t^{(r)})$. Define $\delta(a, b) = 1$ if a = b, 0 otw. Choice of k: Rule is $k < \sqrt{n}$, small k may overfit, while large may under-fit. Curse of Dim: In high dimensions, "most" points are approximately the same distance. Computation Cost: 0 (minimal) at training/ no learning involved. Query time find N distances in D dimension $\mathcal{O}(ND)$ and $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$ sorting time.

Entropy $H(X) = -\mathbb{E}_{X \sim p} [\log_2 p(X)] = -\sum_{x \in X} p(x) \log_2 p(x)$ **Multi-class:** $H(X,Y) = -\sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} p(x,y) \log_2 p(x,y)$ **Properties:** H is non-negative, $H(Y|X) \leq H(Y), X \perp Y \implies H(Y|X) = H(Y), H(Y|Y) = 0$, and H(X,Y) = H(X|Y) + H(Y) = H(Y)H(Y|X) + H(X)

Expected Conditional Entropy $H(Y|X) = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim p(x)}[H(Y|X)] = \sum_{x \in X} p(x)H(Y|X = x) = -\sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} p(x,y)\log_2 p(y|x) = -\mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim p(x,y)}[\log_2 p(Y|X)]$ Information Gain IG(Y|X) = H(Y) - H(Y|X)

Bias Variance Decomposition Using the square error loss $L(y,t) = \frac{1}{2}(y-t)^2$, **Bias** ($\uparrow \implies$ under-fitting): How close is our classifier to true target. Variance ($\uparrow \Longrightarrow$ overfitting): How widely dispersed are out predictions as we generate new datasets $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},\mathcal{D}}\left[\left(h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})-t\right)^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},\mathcal{D}}\left[\left(h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})-\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})\right]+\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})\right]-t\right)^{2}\right]$

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},\mathcal{D}}\left[(h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - t) \right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},\mathcal{D}}\left[(h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})] - t) \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},\mathcal{D}}\left[(h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})])^{2} + (\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})] - t)^{2} + 2 (h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})]) (\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})] - t) \right]$$

$$= \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},\mathcal{D}} \left[(h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})])^{2} \right]}_{\text{variance}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}} \left[(\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})] - t)^{2} \right]}_{\text{bias}}$$

Bagging with Generating Distribution Suppose we could sample *m* independent training sets $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^m$ from $p_{dataset}$. Learn $h_i := h_{\mathcal{D}_i}$ and out final predictor is $h = 1/m \sum_{i=1}^m h_i$. **Bias Unchanged:** $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_m} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} p_{dataset}$ $[h(\mathbf{x})] = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i \sim p_{dataset}} [h_i(\mathbf{x})] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D} \sim p_{dataset}} [h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})]$ **Variance Reduced:** $\operatorname{Var}_{\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_m} [h(\mathbf{x})] = \frac{1}{m^2} \sum_{i=1}^m \operatorname{Var} [h_i(\mathbf{x})] = \frac{1}{m} \operatorname{Var} [h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})]$

Bootstrap Aggregation Take a single dataset \mathcal{D} with *n* sample and generate *m* new datasets, each by sampling *n* training examples from \mathcal{D} , with replacement. We then the average the predictions. We have the reduction in variance to be $\operatorname{Var}\left(\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}h_i(\mathbf{x})\right) =$ $\frac{1}{m}(1-\rho)\sigma^2 + \rho\sigma^2$

Random Forest Upon bootstrap aggregation, for each bag we choose a random set of features to make the trees grow on (decorrelates predictions, lower ρ).

Bayes Optimality
$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},\mathcal{D},t|\mathbf{x}}\left[\left(h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})-t\right)^{2}\right] = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\left[\left(\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})\right]-y_{*}(\mathbf{x})\right)^{2}\right]}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},\mathcal{D}}\left[\left(h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})-\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})\right]\right)^{2}\right]}_{\text{variance}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\left[\operatorname{Var}[t|\mathbf{x}]\right]}_{\text{Bayes}}$$

Feature Mapping Some time we want fit a polynomial curve, we can do this using a feature map $y = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \psi(x)$ where $\psi(x) =$ $[1, x, x^2, \ldots]^{\top}$. In general the feature map could be anything.

Ridge Regression $\mathbf{w}_{\lambda}^{Ridge} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathcal{J}_{reg}}(\mathbf{w}) = \operatorname{argmin}_{\frac{1}{2}} \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{t}\|_{2}^{2} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_{2}^{2} = \left(\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X} + \lambda\mathbf{I}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{t}$ When $\lambda = 0$ this is just OLS.

 ${\bf Gradient \ Descent} \quad {\rm Consider \ the \ some \ cost \ function \ } {\cal J} \ {\rm and \ we \ want \ to \ optimize \ it}. }$

- GD: w ← w − α ∂J/∂w; GD w/ Reg w ← w − α (∂J/∂w + λ∂R/∂w) = (1 − αλ)w − α∂J/∂w
 mSGD: Choose mini batch M ⊂ {1,...,N} and update w ← w − α/|M| Σ^{|M|}_{i=1} ∂L⁽ⁱ⁾/∂w Reasonable size would be |M| ≈ 100
- SGD: Choose *i* at uniform; $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} \alpha \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}^{(i)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$; **Pro//Cons:** Progress w/o seeing all data//High Variance & Not efficiently vectorized

Cross Entropy Loss $\mathcal{L}_{CE} = -t \log y - (1-t) \log(1-y)$ Logistic CE $\mathcal{L}_{LCE}(z,t) = \mathcal{L}_{CE}(\sigma(z),t) = t \log(1+e^{-z}) + (1-t) \log(1+e^{z})$

Multi-class Classification

- Softmax Function Natural generalization of logistic func: $y_k = \operatorname{softmax}(z_1, \ldots, z_K)_k = \frac{e^{z_k}}{\sum_{k'} e^{z_{k'}}}$; inputs z_k are called logits.
- CE Loss, Vectorized $\mathcal{L}_{CE}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{t}) = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} t_k \log y_k = -\mathbf{t}^{\top}(\log \mathbf{y})$ where the log is applied elementwise.
- Softmax Regression $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{y} = \operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{z}), \text{ and } \mathcal{L}_{CE} = -\mathbf{t}^{\top}(\log \mathbf{y}); \text{ GD Updates is } \mathbf{w}_k \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_k \alpha \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(y_k^{(i)} t_k^{(i)} \right) \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ where \mathbf{w}_k means the k-th row of \mathbf{W}

Activation Functions Identity y = z ReLU $y = \max(0, z)$ Soft ReLU $y = \log(1 + e^z)$ Thresholding y = 1 if z > 0 else 0. Logistic $y = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}} \tanh y = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}}$

Multilayer Perceptron

- Modularity of Layers $\mathbf{h}^{(1)} = f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}) = \phi \left(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)} \right), \ \mathbf{h}^{(2)} = f^{(2)} \left(\mathbf{h}^{(1)} \right) = \phi \left(\mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)} \right), \ \dots, \ \mathbf{y} = f^{(L)} \left(\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} \right) = \mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} \left(\mathbf{h}^{(L$ $f^{(L)} \circ \cdots \circ f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})$
- Choice of Last Layer Activation Func Regression: $\mathbf{y} = f^{(L)} \left(\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} \right) = \left(\mathbf{w}^{(L)} \right)^T \mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} + b^{(L)}$; Binary Classification: $\mathbf{y} = b^{(L)} \left(\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} \right)$ $f^{(L)}\left(\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)}\right) = \sigma\left(\left(\mathbf{w}^{(L)}\right)^{T}\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} + b^{(L)}\right)$
- Back Propagation Suppose \mathcal{L} what I want to optimize, then for some variable w that we want to optimize w.r.t., $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} =: \overline{\mathbf{w}}$
- Back Prop Cost Forward: one add-multiplicity operation per weight; Backward: two add-multiplicity operations per weight \implies the Backward pass is about as expensive as two Forward passes. (cost is linear in # of layers, quadratic in # of units per layer)

Statistic on Samples

- Sample Mean $\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$. $\hat{\mu}$ roughly quantifies where your data is located in space
- Sample Cov $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \right) \left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \right)^{\top}$ quantifies the shape of spread of the data

Euclidean projection Let S denote the subspace with dim = k that is spanned by the basis $\{\mathbf{u}_1, ..., \mathbf{u}_K\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^D$. Then,

Any vector y ∈ S could be represented as y = ∑_{i=1}^K z_iu_i, for some z₁, ..., z_k ∈ ℝ
The projection of x onto S is given as Proj_S(x) = ∑_{i=1}^K (x^Tu_i)u_i = ∑_{i=1}^K z_iu_i where z_i = x^Tu_i

Principle Component Analysis - Projection onto Subspace

- Let $\{\mathbf{u}_k\}_{k=1}^K$ be an orthonormal basis of the subspace \mathcal{S} .
- Define **U** to be a matrix with columns $\{\mathbf{u}_k\}_{k=1}^K$ then $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{U}^T(\mathbf{x} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})$. Here the **z** is called the code vector Also, $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \mathbf{U}\mathbf{z} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T(\mathbf{x} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})$ is called the reconstruction of **x**
- Note: $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T$ is the projector matrix and $\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U} = I$ is the identity matrix.
- x and $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ are both in \mathbb{R}^D while $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ lives in a low dimensional subspace in \mathbb{R}^D . The code vector \mathbf{x} is in \mathbb{R}^K , and is the low dim representation of the vector \mathbf{x}

PCA - Learning Subspace

- Criteria I: Minimize the reconstruction error: Find vectors in a subspace that are closest to data points, $\min_{\mathbf{U}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left\| \mathbf{x}^{(i)} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)} \right\|^2$
- Criteria II: Maximize the variance of reconstructions: Find subspaces where data has the most variability, $\max_{\mathbf{U}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \left\| \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \right\|^2$
- Proof: Criteria I = Criteria II; It suffices to show that $\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \|\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)}\|^2 = \text{const} \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i} \|\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}\|^2$

Support Vector Machines

- Hinge Loss is defined as L_{z,t} := max{0, 1 − zt}, where z := w^Tx + b and t is the target
 Formulation minimize_{w,b} ∑^N_{i=1} max{0, 1 − t⁽ⁱ⁾z⁽ⁱ⁾(w,b)}
 L2 Regularized minimize_{w,b} ∑^N_{i=1} max{0, 1 − t⁽ⁱ⁾z⁽ⁱ⁾(w,b)} + ^λ/₂ ||w||²₂
 Optimal Separation Hamor Lange that the target that

- Optimal Separating *Hyperplane* A hyperplane that separate two classes and maximizes the distance to the closest point from either class, i.e., maximizes the *margin* $(C = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|_2})$ of the classifier.
- Note: A separating hyperplane is optimal *iff* it touches three data points near the margin.

AdaBoost Key Concepts

- Boosting: Train classifier sequentially, each time focusing on training data points that were previously misclassified.
 Weighted Training Set: The weighted misclassification rate is ∑_{i=1}^N w⁽ⁿ⁾ I(h(x⁽ⁿ⁾ ≠ t⁽ⁿ⁾)) where w⁽ⁿ⁾ > 0 and ∑_n w⁽ⁿ⁾ = 1
- Weak Learner (Informal): Weak learners are algorithms that output slightly better than chance
- Efficient Weak Learners: We are interested in weak learners that are computationally efficient, for example decision trees, or even decision stumps (decision trees with only one split)
- Weak Classifier: The error of classifier h according to the given weights $\{w^{(1)}, ..., w^{(N)}\}$ is $err := \sum_{n=1}^{N} w^{(n)} \mathbb{I}(h(x^{(n)} \neq t^{(n)})) < 0$ $\frac{1}{2} - \gamma$ for some $\gamma > 0$ ("better than chance")
- **Reduced Bias** AdaBoost reduces bias by making each classifier focus on previous mistakes.

AdaBoost Workflow

- 1. At each iteration we re-weight the training samples by assigning larger weights to samples (data points) that were classified incorrectly.
- 2. We train a new weak classifier based on the re-weighted samples
- 3. We add this weak classifier to the ensemble of weak classifiers. This ensemble is our new classifier.
- 4. Repeat

AdaBoost Algorithm

- Input data $\mathcal{D}_N = { \mathbf{x}^{(n)}, t^{(n)} }_{n=1}^N$ where $t^{(n)} \in { \{-1, 1\} }$
- A classifier (hypothesis $h: \mathbf{x} \to \{-1, 1\}$), and 0-1 loss $\mathbb{I}[h(x^{(n)}) \neq t^{(n)}] := \frac{1}{2}(1 h(x^n) \cdot t^{(n)})$
- A classification procedure that returns a classifier h, e.g. best decision stump from a set of classifier \mathcal{H} , e.g. all possible decision stumps)
- Output a master classifier H(x)
- For t = 1, ..., T (T is the number of iteration)

1. Fit a classifier to data using weighted samples $h_t \leftarrow WeakLearn(\mathcal{D}_N, \mathbf{w})$. For example we can use

$$h_t \leftarrow \arg\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} w^{(n)} \mathbb{I}\{h(\mathbf{x}^{(n)} \neq t^{(n)})\}$$

2. Compute the weighted error

$$\operatorname{err}_{t} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} w^{(n)} \mathbb{I}\left\{h_{t}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}\right) \neq t^{(n)}\right\}}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} w^{(n)}}$$
$$\alpha_{t} = \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1 - \operatorname{err}_{t}}{\operatorname{err}_{t}} \quad (\in (0, \infty))$$

- 3. Compute classifier coefficient
- 4. Update data weigh

4. Update data weights

$$w^{(n)} \leftarrow w^{(n)} \exp\left(-\alpha_t t^{(n)} h_t\left(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}\right)\right) \left[\equiv w^{(n)} \exp\left(2\alpha_t \mathbb{I}\left\{h_t\left(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}\right) \neq t^{(n)}\right\}\right)\right]$$
• Return $H(x) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t h_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$

AdaBoost Weighting Intuition

- $H(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$ where $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1 \operatorname{err}_t}{\operatorname{err}_t}$ is "how much you trust weak learner t".
- Weak classifiers which get lower weighted error get more weight in the final classifier. When some err_t is small, $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1 err_t}{err_t}$ is large in the final classifier.
- Also in weight updates, $w^{(n)} \leftarrow w^{(n)} \exp\left(2\alpha_t \mathbb{I}\left\{h_t\left(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}\right) \neq t^{(n)}\right\}\right)$. If $err_t \approx 0$ then, α_t hight so misclassified examples get more attention. Else If $err_t \approx 0.5$ then α_t low hence misclassified examples not emphasized.

AdaBoost Geometric Convergence and Generalization Errors

• Theorem: Assume that at each iteration of AdaBoost the WeakLearn returns a hypothesis with error $err_t < \frac{1}{2} - \gamma$ for all t = 1, ..., T with $\gamma > 0$. The training error of the output hypothesis $H(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$ is at most

$$L_N(H) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{I}\left\{H\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) \neq t^{(i)}\right\} \le \exp\left(-2\gamma^2 T\right)$$

under the simplifying assumption that each weak learner is $\gamma > 0$ better than a random predictor. The convergence is called geometric convergence, very fast!

• Generalization Error: AdaBoost's Training error converges to zero. In testing set, AdaBoost can overfit when we add too much weak learners. However this doesn't always happen. There are cases where the testing error keeps decreasing even when training error is zero. WHY? This is because even when training error is zero, the margin (= sample distance to decision boundary) is still improved by further boosting iterations.

Additive Models - AdaBoost Alternative View Point

- Consider hypothesis class \mathcal{H} with $\mathcal{H} \ni h_i : \mathbf{x} \to \{-1, 1\}$ weak learners. Aka bases in this context.
- An additive model with *m* terms is given by $H_m(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i h_i(\mathbf{x})$ where $(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ (generally $\alpha_i \ge 0$ and $\sum_i \alpha_i = 1$) • Stage-wise Training of Additive Models

Initialize $H_0(x) = 0$

For m = 1 up to T do

Compute *m*-th hypothesis $h_m = H_{m-1} + \alpha_m h_m$, i.e. h_m and α_m assuming previous additive model H_{m-1} is fixed

$$(h_m, \alpha_m) \leftarrow \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}, \alpha}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{L}\left(H_{m-1}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) + \alpha h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right), t^{(i)}\right)$$

$$H_m = H_{m-1} + \alpha_m h_m$$
(1)

Add it to the additive model

• Additive Model with Exp Loss: Consider the Exponential Loss $\mathcal{L}_E(z,t) := \exp(-tz)$. Then, (1) becomes

$$(h_m, \alpha_m) \leftarrow \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}, \alpha}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \exp\left(-\left[H_{m-1}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) + \alpha h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)\right] t^{(i)}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \exp\left(-H_{m-1}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) t^{(i)} - \alpha h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) t^{(i)}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \underbrace{\exp\left(-H_{m-1}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) t^{(i)}\right)}_{\triangleq w_i^{(m)}} \exp\left(-\alpha h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) t^{(i)}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i^{(m)} \exp\left(-\alpha h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) t^{(i)}\right)$$

• h Optimized at: $h_m \leftarrow \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^N w_i^{(m)} \exp\left(-\alpha h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) t^{(i)}\right) \equiv \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^N w_i^{(m)} \mathbb{I}\left\{h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) \neq t^{(i)}\right\}$ • Weight Undate Optimized at: $w_i^{(m+1)} \leftarrow w_i^{(m)} \exp\left(-\alpha \cdot h\left(-\alpha^{(i)}\right) t^{(i)}\right)$

• Weight Update Optimized at:
$$w_i^{(m+1)} \leftarrow w_i^{(m)} \exp\left(-\alpha_m h_m\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) t^{(i)}\right)$$

• Coefficient Optimized at:
$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \log \left(\frac{1 - \operatorname{err}_m}{\operatorname{err}_m} \right)$$
 where $\operatorname{err}_m \triangleq \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N w_i^{(m)} \mathbb{I}\left\{ h_m(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \neq t^{(i)} \right\}}{\sum_{i=1}^N w_i^{(m)}}$

Naïve Bayes

- Naïve Assumption: Naïve Bayes assumes that the features are conditionally independent given the class c, i.e. $p(c, x_1, ..., x_D) =$ $p(c)p(x_1|c)...p(x_D|c)$. Benefit: This gives us a compact representation of the joint distribution. $\mathcal{O}(2^{D+1}-1) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(2D+1)$
- Bayes Rule $p(c|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x},c)}{p(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|c)p(c)}{p(\mathbf{x})}$ Formally posterior = $\frac{\text{Class likelihood } \times \text{ prior}}{\text{Evidence}}$
- Naïve Bayes Inference $p(c|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(c)p(\mathbf{x}|c)}{\sum_{c'} p(c')p(\mathbf{x}|c')} = \frac{p(c)\prod_{j=1}^{D} p(x_j|c)}{\sum_{c'} p(c')\prod_{j=1}^{D} p(x_j|c')}$ Shorthand $p(c|\mathbf{x}) \propto p(c)\prod_{j=1}^{D} p(x_j|c)$
- Computational Cost of Naïve Bayes: (1) Training Time: estimate parameters using MLE, requires one pass in the data. (2) **Test Time:** apply Baye's Rule. Cheap because of the model structure.

Bayesian Parameter Estimation

- Posterior Distribution: p(θ|D) = p(θ)p(D|θ) / ∫ p(θ')p(D|θ')dθ'
 Gamma As Prior: p(θ; a, b) = Γ(a+b) / Γ(a)Γ(b) θ^{a-1}(1-θ)^{b-1}. Proportionality: p(θ; a, b) ∝ θ^{a-1}(1-θ)^{b-1}
- Maximum A-posteriori Estimation: $\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\theta} p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \arg \max_{\theta} p(\theta) p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) = \arg \max_{\theta} \log p(\theta) + \log p(\mathcal{D}|\theta)$

Properties of Gaussian Distribution

- $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ is defined as $p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\right]$ Empirical Mean $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ Empirical Cov $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}\right) \left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}\right)^{\top}$

Gaussian Discriminant Analysis (Gaussian Bayes Classifier)

- Idea: Make decisions by comparing class posteriors. $\log p(t_k | \mathbf{x}) = \log p(\mathbf{x} | t_k) + \log p(t_k) \log p(\mathbf{x})$
- Expanded $\log p(t_k|\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{d}{2}\log(2\pi) \frac{1}{2}\log|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1}| \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^T\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k) + \log p(t_k) \log p(\mathbf{x})$ Decision Boundary: $\log p(t_k|\mathbf{x}) = \log p(t_l|\mathbf{x}) \implies (\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^T\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k) = (\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_\ell)^T\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_\ell^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_\ell) + C_{k,l}$ Then, $\mathbf{x}^T\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1}\mathbf{x} 2\boldsymbol{\mu}_k^T\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^T\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_\ell^{-1}\mathbf{x} 2\boldsymbol{\mu}_\ell^T\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_\ell^{-1}\mathbf{x} + C_{k,l}$
- Decision Boundary: is quadratic since gaussian is quadratic. When we have to humps that share the same covariance, the decision boundary is linear.
- VS Logistic Regression (1) GDA is generative while LR is discriminative model. (2) GDA makes stringer modelling assumptions: assumes gaussian distributon. When assumption true, GDA asymptotically efficient. (3) LR more robust, less sensitive to incorrect modelling assumptions (LR uses CE, no assumption.) (4) Class-conditional distributions usually lead to logistic classifier.